

THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE BULLETIN

VOL. XIII, NO. 317

JULY 22, 1945

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THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE

BULLETIN

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The Department of State BULLETIN, a weekly publication compiled and edited in the Division of Research and Publication, Office of Public Affairs, provides the public and interested agencies of the Government with information on developments in the field of foreign relations and on the work of the Department of State and the Foreign Service. The BULLETIN includes press releases on foreign policy issued by the White House and the Department, and statements and addresses made by the President and by the Secretary of State and other officers of the Department, as well as special articles on various phases of international affairs and the functions of the Department. Information concerning treaties and international agreements to which the United States is or may become a party and treaties of general international interest is included.

Publications of the Department, cumulative lists of which are published at the end of each quarter, as well as legislative material in the field of international relations, are listed currently.

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AUG 14 '45

Instrument of Surrender of

All German armed forces in HOLLAND, in northwest Germany including all islands, and in DENMARK.

1. The German Command agrees to the surrender of all German armed forces in HOLLAND, in northwest GERMANY including the FRISIAN ISLANDS and HELIGOLAND and all other islands, in SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN, and in DENMARK, to the C.-in-C. 21 Army Group. This to include all naval ships in these areas. These forces to lay down their arms and to surrender unconditionally.
2. All hostilities on land, on sea, or in the air by German forces in the above areas to cease at 0800 hrs. British Double Summer Time on Saturday 5 May 1945.
3. The German command to carry out at once, and without argument or comment, all further orders that will be issued by the Allied Powers on any subject.
4. Disobedience of orders, or failure to comply with them, will be regarded as a breach of these surrender terms and will be dealt with by the Allied Powers in accordance with the accepted laws and usages of war.
5. This instrument of surrender is independent of, without prejudice to, and will be superseded by any general instrument of surrender imposed by or on behalf of the Allied Powers and applicable to Germany and the German armed forces as a whole.
6. This instrument of surrender is written in English and in German. The English version is the authentic text.
7. The decision of the Allied Powers will be final if any doubt or dispute arises as to the meaning or interpretation of the surrender terms.

B. L. MONTGOMERY
Field-Marshal
4 May 1945
1830 hrs.

FRIEDEBURG.
KINSEL
G. WAGNER.
POLECK
FRIEDEL

[NOTE: The texts of the above and the following two documents conform to the originals.]

Only this text in English is authoritative

ACT OF MILITARY SURRENDER

1. We the undersigned, acting by authority of the German High Command, hereby surrender unconditionally to the Supreme Commander, Allied Expeditionary Force and simultaneously to the Soviet High Command all forces on land, sea, and in the air who are at this date under German control.

2. The German High Command will at once issue orders to all German military, naval and air authorities and to all forces under German control to cease active operations at 2301 hours Central European time on 8 May and to remain in the positions occupied at that time. No ship, vessel, or aircraft is to be scuttled, or any damage done to their hull, machinery or equipment.

3. The German High Command will at once issue to the appropriate commanders, and ensure the carrying out of any further orders issued by the Supreme Commander, Allied Expeditionary Force and by the Soviet High Command.

4. This act of military surrender is without prejudice to, and will be superseded by any general instrument of surrender imposed by, or on

behalf of the United Nations and applicable to GERMANY and the German armed forces as a whole.

5. In the event of the German High Command or any of the forces under their control failing to act in accordance with this Act of Surrender, the Supreme Commander, Allied Expeditionary Force and the Soviet High Command will take such punitive or other action as they deem appropriate.

Signed at Rheims at 0241 on the 7th day of May, 1945.
France

On behalf of the German High Command.

JODL

IN THE PRESENCE OF:

On behalf of the Supreme
Commander, Allied Ex-
peditionary Force.

W. B. SMITH

On behalf of the Soviet
High Command.
SOUSLOPAROV.

F SEVEZ

Major General, French Army
(Witness)

ACT OF MILITARY SURRENDER

1. We the undersigned, acting by authority of the German High Command, hereby surrender unconditionally to the Supreme Commander, Allied Expeditionary Force and simultaneously to the Supreme High Command of the Red Army all forces on land, at sea, and in the air who are at this date under German control.

2. The German High Command will at once issue orders to all German military, naval and air authorities and to all forces under German control to cease active operations at 2301 hours Central European time on 8th May 1945, to remain in the positions occupied at that time and to disarm completely, handing over their weapons and equipment to the local allied commanders or officers designated by Representatives of the Allied Supreme Commands. No ship, vessel, or aircraft is to be scuttled, or any damage done to their hull, machinery or equipment, and also to machines of all kinds, armament, apparatus, and all the technical means of prosecution of war in general.

3. The German High Command will at once issue to the appropriate commanders, and ensure the carrying out of any further orders issued by the Supreme Commander, Allied Expeditionary Force and by the Supreme High Command of the Red Army.

4. This act of military surrender is without prejudice to, and will be superseded by any general instrument of surrender imposed by, or on behalf of the United Nations and applicable to GERMANY and the German armed forces as a whole.

5. In the event of the German High Command or any of the forces under their control failing to act in accordance with this Act of Surrender, the Supreme Commander, Allied Expeditionary Force and the Supreme High Command of the Red Army will take such punitive or other action as they deem appropriate.

6. This Act is drawn up in the English,

Russian and German languages. The English and Russian are the only authentic texts.

Signed at Berlin on the 8. day of May, 1945

FRIEDBURG KEITEL STUMPF
On behalf of the German High Command

IN THE PRESENCE OF:

On behalf of the	On behalf of the
Supreme Commander	Supreme High Command
Allied Expeditionary Force	of the Red Army
A W TEDDER	G ZHUKOV

At the signing also were present as witnesses:

F. DE LATTRE-TASSIGNY	CARL SPAATZ
General Commanding in Chief	General, Commanding
First French Army	United States Strategic Air Forces

**" . . . in the Name of the People
of the United States"**

Informal Remarks by THE PRESIDENT¹

GENERAL EISENHOWER, OFFICERS AND MEN: This is an historic occasion. We have conclusively proven that a free people can successfully look after the affairs of the world.

We are here today to raise the flag of victory over the capital of our greatest adversary. In doing that we must remember that in raising that flag we are raising it in the name of the people of the United States, who are looking forward to a better world, a peaceful world, a world in which all the people will have an opportunity to enjoy the good things of life, and not just a few at the top.

Let us not forget that we are fighting for peace and for the welfare of mankind. We are not fighting for conquest. There is not one piece of territory or one thing of a monetary nature that we want out of this war.

We want peace and prosperity for the world as a whole. We want to see the time come when we can do the things in peace that we have been able to do in war.

If we can put this tremendous machine of ours, which has made this victory possible, to work for peace, we can look forward to the greatest age in the history of mankind. That is what we propose to do.

Removal of Alien Enemies²

[Released to the press by the White House July 17]

WHEREAS section 4067 of the Revised Statutes of the United States (50 U.S.C. 21) provides:

"Whenever there is a declared war between the United States and any foreign nation or government, or any invasion or predatory incursion is perpetrated, attempted, or threatened against the territory of the United States by any foreign nation or government, and the President makes public proclamation of the event, all natives, citizens, denizens, or subjects of the hostile nation or government, being of the age of fourteen years and upward, who shall be within the United States and not actually naturalized, shall be liable to be

apprehended, restrained, secured, and removed as alien enemies. The President is authorized, in any such event, by his proclamation thereof, or other public act, to direct the conduct to be observed, on the part of the United States, toward the aliens who become so liable; the manner and degree of the restraint to which they shall be subject and in what cases, and upon what security their residence shall be permitted, and to provide for the removal of those who, not being permitted to reside within the United States, refuse or neglect to depart therefrom; and to establish any other regulations which are found necessary in the premises and for the public safety;"

WHEREAS sections 4068, 4069, and 4070 of the Revised Statutes of the United States (50 U.S.C. 22, 23, 24) make further provision relative to alien enemies;

WHEREAS the Congress by joint resolutions approved by the President on December 8 and 11, 1941, and June 5, 1942, declared the existence of a state of war between the United States and the Governments of Japan, Germany, Italy, Bulgaria, Hungary, and Rumania;

¹ Delivered at the raising of the Stars and Stripes over the United States Group Council Headquarters, Berlin, July 20, 1945. The President, accompanied by the Secretary of State, left the United States on July 7, 1945 for Potsdam, Germany, to meet with Premier Stalin and Prime Minister Churchill.

² Proclamation 2655 (10 Federal Register 8947).

WHEREAS by Proclamation No. 2525 of December 7, 1941, Proclamations Nos. 2526 and 2527 of December 8, 1941, Proclamation No. 2533 of December 29, 1941, Proclamation No. 2537 of January 14, 1942, and Proclamation No. 2563 of July 17, 1942, the President prescribed and proclaimed certain regulations governing the conduct of alien enemies; and

WHEREAS I find it necessary in the interest of national defense and public safety to prescribe regulations additional and supplemental to such regulations:

NOW, THEREFORE, I, HARRY S. TRUMAN, President of the United States of America, acting under and by virtue of the authority vested in me by the Constitution of the United States and the aforesaid sections of the Revised Statutes of the United States, do hereby prescribe and proclaim the following regulations, additional and supplemental to those prescribed by the aforesaid proclamations:

All alien enemies now or hereafter interned within the continental limits of the United States pursuant to the aforesaid proclamations of the

President of the United States who shall be deemed by the Attorney General to be dangerous to the public peace and safety of the United States because they have adhered to the aforesaid enemy governments or to the principles of government thereof shall be subject upon the order of the Attorney General to removal from the United States and may be required to depart therefrom in accordance with such regulations as he may prescribe.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

DONE at the City of Washington this 14th day of July in the year of our Lord nineteen hundred and forty-five and of the Independence of the United States of America the one hundred and seventieth.

HARRY S. TRUMAN

By the President:

JAMES F. BYRNES,
Secretary of State.

Meeting of the Interim Council of the Provisional International Civil Aviation Organization

[Released to the press July 20]

Representatives of 20 nations comprising the Interim Council of the Provisional International Civil Aviation Organization (PICAO) will meet in Montreal, Canada, beginning August 15, 1945. The PICAO was provided for by the Interim Agreement on International Civil Aviation, which was concluded at the 1944 Chicago air conference and which came into force on June 6, 1945. The organization will be of a technical and advisory nature but will not be empowered to regulate the economic phases of international air transport. Mr. Edward Warner, Vice Chairman of the Civil Aeronautics Board, will be United States Representative on the Interim Council.

The text of the Chicago International Civil Air Convention and the Interim Agreement, together with the Final Act of the Chicago conference, the International Air Services Transit Agreement, and the International Air Transport Agreement, have been made available to the public in Department of State publication 2282, which may be

purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., for 45 cents.

Another publication of the Department entitled *Blueprint for World Civil Aviation* (publication 2348) gathers under one cover authoritative appraisals of the Chicago air conference, originally printed as magazine articles, by four recognized authorities in the field of international civil aviation who were members of the American Delegation. The authors of the four articles are Adolf A. Berle, Jr., formerly Assistant Secretary of State and now United States Ambassador to Brazil; Stokeley W. Morgan, Chief of the Aviation Division, Office of Transport and Communications Policy of the Department of State; William A. M. Burden, Assistant Secretary of Commerce for Air; and Edward Warner, Vice Chairman of the Civil Aeronautics Board. This 34-page pamphlet may also be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, for 15 cents.

Policy Toward Polish Provisional Government of National Unity

EXCHANGE OF LETTERS BETWEEN SENATOR VANDENBERG AND ACTING SECRETARY GREW

UNITED STATES SENATE

COMMITTEE ON FINANCE

July 9, 1945.

Honorable JOSEPH C. GREW,
Undersecretary of State,
Washington, D.C.

MY DEAR MR. SECRETARY:

In the absence of the Secretary, I take the liberty of addressing this inquiry to you.

It is clear that the settlement of the Polish question thus far made is inadequate and unconvincing to millions of our citizens among whom I may say that I am numbered. There still seems to be no clear assurance that the Polish people will themselves have the final opportunity of untrammelled self-determination under this new Provisional Government which is imposed upon them by Britain, Russia and the United States, within Polish boundaries similarly dictated by these external powers.

I wish to inquire whether our responsibility, under the Yalta Agreement, is presumed to have been discharged by the creation of this new Provisional Government or whether the three-power obligation continues until the promised "free elections" have actually occurred? If the obligation continues, as would seem to be our own unavoidable share of this responsibility, I wish to ask the following questions:

(1) When the new Provisional Government begins to operate, will the United States be permitted to send full diplomatic and consular representatives into Poland?

(2) Will the American Press be permitted to send its uncensored correspondents into Poland?

(3) Will the United States participate, on an equality with the other powers, under their Yalta obligation, in a general supervision of these "free elections" to make certain they are "free" in fact as well as name?

I am sure you will agree that we cannot be guilty of default in any of these directions; and that the greatest measure of realistic self-determination for the Polish people, including the members of the Polish Army which has played such an heroic

part in our victory over the Axis, is the only course consistent with the Atlantic Charter, the Moscow Declaration, the Yalta Agreement, and the San Francisco Charter. I respectfully urge that the full weight of our American influence should be exerted in behalf of final determinations which will clearly serve the ends of justice in behalf of Poland, not only for the sake of Poland but also for the sake of all the Great Powers concerned (and our unity) and for the sake of the international peace and security which we are unitedly seeking to stabilize.

I shall welcome any information you can give me upon this subject in response to my questions.

With sentiments of great respect and with warm personal regards, I beg to remain

Cordially and faithfully,

A H VANDENBERG

JULY 17, 1945.

MY DEAR SENATOR VANDENBERG:

I have received your letter of July 9, 1945 in which you raise several questions concerning the new Polish Provisional Government of National Unity, recently established in Warsaw, and the United States Government's policy toward that Government. For greater convenience to you, I have considered individually, in the order of their appearance in your letter, your several statements and questions:

1. "There still seems to be no clear assurance that the Polish people will themselves have the final opportunity of untrammelled self-determination under this new Provisional Government which is imposed upon them by Britain, Russia and the United States, within Polish boundaries similarly dictated by these external powers."

Since the rival Polish groups in Poland and in London were unable to settle their differences, it was decided at Yalta to set up a Commission, composed of Mr. Molotov, People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the U.S.S.R., Sir Archibald Clark-Kerr, British Ambassador to the U.S.S.R., and Mr. W. Averell Harriman, American Amba-

sador to the U.S.S.R., which would be empowered to bring these groups together in order that members of the Polish provisional government then functioning in Warsaw and other Polish democratic leaders from within Poland and from abroad could consult with a view to the reorganization of the provisional government on a broader democratic basis, and the formation of a new Polish Provisional Government of National Unity with which the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union could establish diplomatic relations. Arrangements were finally made to bring the three groups of Poles together and they met in Moscow between June 17 and June 21 to discuss the composition of the new government. On June 21 the leaders informed the Commission established by the Crimea Conference that complete accord had been reached by them regarding the formation of a new Polish Provisional Government of National Unity. After studying the report submitted by the Polish leaders, the three Commissioners concluded that the Polish groups represented had set up a government in conformity with the Crimea decisions. The Commission's decision was accepted by the Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union.

Thus, since this Government was set up by the Poles themselves, the new Government was not imposed upon the Polish people by the United States, Great Britain and the Soviet Union.

2. "I wish to inquire whether our responsibility, under the Yalta Agreement, is presumed to have been discharged by the creation of this new Provisional Government or whether the three-power obligation continues until the promised 'free elections' have actually occurred?"

The formation of the new Polish Provisional Government of National Unity constituted a positive step in the fulfillment of the Crimea decisions. The decisions will be further implemented when the new Government carries out its pledge to hold free and unfettered elections as soon as possible on the basis of universal suffrage and the secret ballot. In this connection the Crimea decisions also provide that the Ambassadors in Poland of the three powers shall keep their respective Governments informed about the situation in Poland. It is clear, therefore, that the creation of the new Gov-

ernment does not alone discharge us from the responsibilities we assumed at Yalta.

3. "When the new Provisional Government begins to operate, will the United States be permitted to send full diplomatic and consular representatives into Poland?"

Mr. Osobka-Morawski, Prime Minister of the new Polish Provisional Government of National Unity, in his message to President Truman requesting the establishment of diplomatic relations with his Government stated:

"I have the honor in the name of the Provisional Government of National Unity to approach the Government of the United States of America with a request for the establishment of diplomatic relations between our nations and for the exchange of representatives with the rank of Ambassador."

On the basis of the assurances given by the United States at the Crimea Conference, President Truman established diplomatic relations with the new Government and informed the Prime Minister that he had chosen as Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to Poland the Honorable Arthur Bliss Lane. Ambassador Lane and initial members of his staff are making arrangements to proceed to Warsaw as soon as possible and, thus in accordance with the Crimea decisions, the Ambassador will be in a position to keep this Government "informed about the situation in Poland".

4. "Will the American Press be permitted to send its uncensored correspondents into Poland?"

In the discussions relative to the recognition of the new Polish Provisional Government of National Unity, the United States Government made it clear that it expected American correspondents to be permitted to enter Poland in order that the American public may be informed of the situation in that area. You may be assured that the United States Government will use its full influence to attain this desired end.

In addition to these conversations regarding the entry of American correspondents into Poland, the Department of State has for some time been pressing the Soviet authorities for authorization for American correspondents to enter eastern and southeastern Europe in order to be in a position to report accurately to the American public on

developments there. The Department will continue its efforts to obtain permission for American correspondents to operate freely in all areas.

5. "Will the United States participate, on an equality with the other powers, under their Yalta obligation, in a general supervision of these 'free elections' to make certain they are 'free' in fact as well as name?"

President Truman in his message to the Polish Prime Minister stated that "I am pleased to note that Your Excellency's Government has recognized in their entirety the decisions of the Crimea Conference on the Polish question, thereby confirming the intention of Your Excellency's Government to proceed with the holding of elections in Poland in conformity with the provisions of the Crimea decisions." This undertaking with regard to the holding of free and unfettered elections was one of the vital points considered in connection with the establishment of diplomatic relations between this Government and the new Polish Provisional Government of National Unity.

As indicated above, the American Ambassador and his staff will make reports on the situation in Poland and on the basis of these reports this Government will give consideration to the question of whether supervision of elections would be advisable. If it is decided to supervise the elections, the United States Government will, of course, insist upon its right to participate on an equal basis with the other powers.

In conclusion, I wish to point out that American policy with regard to Poland continues to be based on the decisions of the Crimea Conference. Both President Roosevelt and President Truman have gone on record that the United States Government stands unequivocally for a strong, free and independent Polish state.

I welcome this opportunity to exchange views with you, since I believe it is of vital importance that the members of the Congress be afforded a clear understanding of questions relating to our foreign relations and policy. Under such conditions the State Department can best carry out the foreign policy of the United States as determined by the President and the Congress.

Sincerely yours,

JOSEPH C. GREW,
Acting Secretary.

Election of Secretary of State as Chairman of Governing Board Of Pan American Union

[Released to the press by the Pan American Union July 16]

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union, at a special session, on July 16 elected Secretary of State Byrnes Chairman of the Board, to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of former Secretary Stettinius. On motion of the Ambassador of Argentina, Oscar Ibarra García, the Board also decided to extend to Mr. Stettinius an expression of appreciation for his admirable services to the nations of Latin America, especially on the occasion of the recent San Francisco conference.

Seating of Argentine Ambassador on Governing Board of Pan American Union

[Released to the press by the Pan American Union July 16]

The Argentine Ambassador attended for the first time on July 16 a meeting of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, and on behalf of the members was greeted by the Acting Chairman, the Ambassador of Brazil, Carlos Martins. The Brazilian Ambassador recalled the cooperation which the Pan American Union had always received from the representatives of Argentina on the Governing Board and expressed confidence that such cooperation would be continued.

Ambassador Ibarra García expressed his satisfaction at becoming a member of the Board, and his appreciation of the spirit of solidarity demonstrated by the other American republics at the San Francisco conference. He declared that he was complying with instructions of his Government on assuming his seat on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union "without mental reservations of any character and reaffirming the firm determination of the Argentine Republic to collaborate with the Pan American organization at a time when the interests of humanity and of civilization require that the union of the American republics be a reality."

That Women May Share

By MARION PARKS¹

AT SAN FRANCISCO the framers of the new world Organization have rested their case before international conscience. The Charter they have completed provides for a structure whereby the world can be reconstituted on bases which stress the dignity, rights, and liberties of the individual citizen. At the Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace held at Mexico City February 21 to March 8, 1945, these concepts were more positively defined than at previous inter-American meetings. Those expressions of social and economic principles incorporated in the Final Act were precursors in this hemisphere of much which has just been underwritten on a world scale at San Francisco.² The American republics have been moving over a period of many years toward acceptance of this point of view. Analysis of inter-American conferences held during the past half-century reveals a logical sequence of action leading toward the establishment of the ideal of social justice as a cardinal objective of international relations.

The world will remain far short of attaining justice and liberty for all, however, so long as half the world's adult population remains, because of sex discrimination, under legal and practical restraints preventing the full exercise of civil and political rights. Removal of the age-old accumulation of legal obstacles and traditional hindrances which prevent women, in varying degree in various countries, from enjoying the rights and from sharing the tasks of citizenship on an equal footing with men is one of the fundamental requirements for preparing a clean slate on which to write the new justice of the earth.

With specific reference to women, the delegates of the American republics at Mexico City subscribed to the declaration that "Democratic postulates contain absolute equality of rights and duties

for individuals without distinction as to sex." In the concept that women, "as experience has demonstrated, especially during the present war, are a factor of prime importance for the moral elevation and material progress of all nations", the Conference recommended that the American republics appoint women in their future delegations to international conferences, including the one at San Francisco. In addition, the Mexico City conference adopted recommendations and resolutions pertaining to the rights and protection of women as citizens, in the home, and as workers and individual members of society. In corollary references the Conference dealt with questions relating to children and the family.

These pronouncements and recommendations to the American governments can be of great benefit in improving the position of women with regard to the enjoyment and protection of civil and political rights, since women are still subject to a wide range of inequalities by the archaic terms of civil and political legislation in many of the American republics and among the 48 States of the American Union. These inequities, curiously enough, pertain for the most part to married rather than to single women and thus are detrimental to the status of woman in her primary role as wife, mother, and homemaker. They occur in laws regarding citizenship, property ownership and management, the making of contracts, and the guardianship of children, and they are of extreme importance in their bearing on family relationships.

Political Rights of Women of the Americas

Women today have political rights in eight of the American republics in addition to the United States, namely, Ecuador, Brazil, Uruguay, Cuba, El Salvador, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, and Panama. The constitutions of some of the other American nations expressly forbid the exercise of suffrage by women. Specific prohibitions against women's participation in government or certain professions remain on the books in various countries.

¹ Miss Parks is an Administrative Assistant in the American Embassy at Madrid.

² The texts of the resolutions and recommendations discussed in this article may be found in *Inter-American Conference on Problems of War and Peace, Mexico City, February-March 1945* (Pan American Union, Washington, 1945).

Great and steady progress is being made by women in the professions, however, even in the American republics where they do not enjoy political rights, although conditions have accelerated their advancement both in the professions and in industry. In the sphere of government, Cuba was the first country of the Western Hemisphere to have a woman in its Cabinet, and it continues to maintain a larger number of women in its consular service than any other Latin American country. Panama was the first of the American republics to appoint a woman consul general. Various American governments have appointed women to diplomatic posts, Mexico having been the first to name a woman as a minister plenipotentiary. Feminine representatives have been elected to the Congresses of Uruguay, Brazil, and the Dominican Republic, as well as to that of the United States.

During the past quarter century women in the Americas have begun to assume political rights. The period coincides, of course, with the interval since World War I, with its train of revolutionary influences upon the lives of women throughout the world. Immeasurably greater stimuli are flowing from the concentration of social, political, economic, and military forces involved in World War II, with incalculable consequences in the future for women's position in society, industry, business, and government.

Thus the propositions pertaining to labor and social-welfare matters which were endorsed by the Mexico City conference may become of extraordinary future importance. Women will also have a deep interest and a major responsibility in making effective the resolutions of the Conference which pertained to public health, education, and moral and social rehabilitation, through which the destructive consequences of the war may be transmuted into the building of a more just world.

The First Voting Delegates

At Mexico City, for the first time at any inter-American conference, a woman was accredited as a voting delegate. The distinction of taking this step, which in terms of history was a giant stride, belongs to the Dominican Republic, with Señorita Minerva Bernardino discharging the honor with credit to herself and to her country. Miss Bernardino represents the Dominican Re-

public on the Inter-American Commission of Women, of which she currently is chairman. Women likewise were included among the official delegations or as advisers to the delegations of several American republics at Mexico City, including those of Mexico, the United States, and, practically although not technically, Brazil.

The initial draft for the resolution adopted by the Conference regarding an inter-American Charter for Women and Children was presented to the Committee on Social Problems by Señora Amalia C. de Castillo Ledón, member of the Mexican Delegation and vice chairman of the Inter-American Commission of Women. Under the leadership of Brazil's able feminist and former Congresswoman, Senhora Bertha Lutz, Brazilian women met the delegates of their Government in Rio de Janeiro to prepare resolutions which were transmitted to the Conference. These resolutions referred to the contributions of Latin American women to the war effort and to the demonstration they have made during the war period of their capacity as wage-earners, producers, and constructive citizens. By action of the Committee on Social Problems at Mexico City, they were transmitted to the Inter-American Commission of Women for study.

International Interest in Equal Rights

Only two decades ago was the question of equal rights for women first elevated to the status of an international question among the Americas. This action was taken through the initiative of the Republic of Guatemala at the Fifth International Conference of American States held at Santiago, Chile, in 1923.¹ Highly important propositions regarding the position of women in this hemi-

¹ For reports on international conferences of American states mentioned in this article see the following publications: *Report of the Delegates of the United States of America to the Fifth International Conference of American States Held at Santiago, Chile, March 25 to May 3, 1923, With Appendices* (Washington, 1924); *Report of the Delegates of the United States of America to the Sixth International Conference of American States Held at Habana, Cuba, January 16 to February 20, 1928, With Appendices* (Washington, 1928); *Report of the Delegates of the United States of America to the Seventh International Conference of American States, Montevideo, Uruguay, December 3-26, 1933* (Department of State publication 666); *Report of the Delegation of the United States of America to the Eighth International Conference of American States, Lima, Peru, December 9-27, 1938* (Department of State publication 1624).

sphere were enunciated at that time, and the Conference pledged itself to consider ways and means by which women of America might be admitted on terms of equality to the same legal and political rights enjoyed by the men of their respective countries.

The propositions adopted by the Fifth Conference covered the essential elements of the problem and provided a substantial and comprehensive platform on which all subsequent discussion and study could be based. The following recommendations were made: (1) that the agenda for future conferences include study of means of abolishing the constitutional and legal incapacities of women in order to prepare for their admission to political and civil rights equal to those of men; (2) that the American governments promote the moral, intellectual, and physical education of women; (3) that the American governments revise their civil legislation so far as it is inconsonant with the present cultural condition of American women; and (4) that the American republics prepare a memoir on the position of women in this continent which would serve as a basis of further investigation by the next conference. The Fifth Conference also recommended that women be included in the delegations and participate in the work of future conferences. A new era was beginning. But history marches slowly; 22 years later the first woman delegate was named to attend an inter-American meeting, the one at Mexico City this year.

The Inter-American Commission of Women

Nevertheless, the recommendations of the Fifth Conference were kept alive and received consideration at the Sixth Conference, held in Habana in 1928. At that meeting the Inter-American Commission of Women was constituted, and women of this hemisphere were for the first time officially entrusted with a juridical mission. The commission indeed was formed for the purpose of assembling juridical information and other data which would enable the Seventh Inter-American Conference to take up the proposition of civil and political equality for women. The first chairman was Doris Stevens of the United States, initiator of the movement. Representatives of six other American republics were appointed by the Pan American Union to serve with her in forming the original Commission, the membership of which was subsequently increased by the Commission itself until every republic was represented.

The United States Government treated the Inter-American Commission of Women as an autonomous educational institution, and in 1930 Cuba invited the Commission to hold its first conference in Habana in connection with the observance of the two-hundredth anniversary of the founding of the University of Habana.

Three years later, in 1933, the report of the Commission was presented to the Seventh International Conference of American States at Montevideo. The report was accepted by the Conference with recognition of its unique character, its accuracy, and its completeness. But at that point the Commission had to fight for existence against the recommendation of some of the national delegations, including that of the United States, that the Commission had terminated the work for which it was established and that it should cease to exist, while the question of equal civil and political rights for women should be relegated to the consideration of the states severally, as an internal rather than an international matter. By majority vote of the delegations, however, this recommendation was rejected. The Commission was continued, and since that time it has worked unceasingly, although under limitations, to improve the condition of women in the Americas. At the Eighth Conference, Lima, 1938, the position of the Commission was made more secure with a resolution that it should be given official status and that it should be made an integral part of the inter-American organization in an advisory capacity. It is today the only women's organization of continental scope in America with official status.

Since the creation of the Commission, political rights have been granted to women by the following American countries: Ecuador (1929), Brazil (1932), Uruguay (1932), Cuba (1934), El Salvador (1939), the Dominican Republic (1942), Guatemala (1944), and Panama (1945). The right to vote in municipal elections has been granted to women by Peru (1933), Chile (1934), and Argentina (in some provinces) and Venezuela (1944), as well as by some states of Mexico. The right of citizenship was given by Colombia in 1945.

The Mexico City conference was called outside the Pan American Union as a special meeting of the American republics engaged in the war. It therefore does not take a place in the numbered succession of international conferences of the

American states. However, increased activities of women as a result of the war made it inevitable that the Mexico City conference should carry further than did previous conferences the international consideration of women's status.

There was incorporated in the Mexico City resolutions one that provided for the reorganization, consolidation, and strengthening of the inter-American system and that stated that it was the desire of the Conference that consideration should be given the Inter-American Commission of Women in view of its 16 years of eminent service to the cause of America and humanity. It was recommended that the Commission be included among the organizations forming the Pan American Union, "with the same prerogatives and position that have been accorded to other inter-American institutions of a permanent or emergency character that have functioned within or without the Pan American Union".

The Conference also took cognizance of the fact that the Commission's work has been carried on under difficulties and recommended that henceforth economic support be given the Commission through the allocation of an annual quota from each of the American republics. It was also recommended that the American governments modify their legislative systems so as to abolish unjust discriminations by reason of sex, holding that the existence of such discriminations in any country retards the prosperity and intellectual, social, and political development of all nations of the continent.

Charter for Women and Children

The recommendation of the Mexico City conference on a Charter for Women and Children as incorporated in the Final Act is a substantial and praiseworthy document. It stresses that the aims of the American republics for lasting peace and social justice can be achieved only through respect for the rights and fulfillment of the obligations of *all* citizens and through the moral and spiritual preparation of *every* citizen for life based on the principles of freedom, personal integrity, social justice, and effective social collaboration based on domestic law and international standards. The recommendation holds that the family is the primary social institution for the formation in childhood of the future citizen in accordance with the foregoing principles, and it emphasizes the responsibility of

the mother within the institution of the home. But it recognizes also that, in addition to the role of wife, mother, and homemaker, women frequently must be responsible for self-support and often must provide the financial maintenance of the home and that they have successfully discharged responsibilities as producers and wage-earners, in business, in the professions, and in government.

The preamble to the recommendation recognizes that through participation in civic responsibilities women help to form the social environment and create the conditions of community life necessary for the welfare of the home and of the child. It recognizes the contribution made during the present war by women of the Americas serving in the armed forces and as doctors and nurses and in other technical and professional callings; it also recognizes their contributions to industry, agriculture, and commerce, as they are working by the side of men in every aspect of the war effort and the maintenance of the civilian economy, a demonstration which "has proved beyond question their capacity to meet all the responsibilities of citizenship and of professional and vocational life".

In the light of these considerations, the Conference held that the role of woman "in the discharge of her general responsibilities as a citizen of her community, her country, and the world, can be fulfilled only if all obstacles to her participation in industry, scientific work, the professions, government, and international activities are removed," and only if she is given full opportunity for education. The Mexico City conference, therefore, recommended: (1) that the countries of this hemisphere which have not yet approved the agreements, declarations, and recommendations regarding women, children, and the family which have been adopted in previous inter-American meetings ratify and/or put them into effect as soon as possible; (2) that every country make a study of the professional and vocational opportunities and the problems of women in the post-war period; (3) that sections devoted to the problems of women and children be established in every national department of health, social welfare, and labor, with qualified women acting as directors or cooperating fully in their administration; and (4) that "there be entrusted to the Inter-American Commission of Women, in cooperation with the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood, the International Labor Organization, and other international organizations interested in the sub-

ject, an extensive study of all aspects of family life and of the problems of women and children, as well as the opportunities, services, and protection required for their own welfare and the future of the human race." The conclusions and recommendations of this study, including a draft Charter for Women and Children, are to be submitted to an international conference of American states or to a meeting of American Ministers of Foreign Affairs.

Social Resolutions and Labor Legislation

The working women of the Americas will be vitally affected by the Mexico City resolutions on social principles and the recommendations made by the Conference to the American governments with regard to improvement of the material conditions of working classes, for integrated social-security programs, for measures to procure industrial safety, adequate compensation, and fair and humane labor conditions, and particularly regarding post-war employment problems. Most women work because of economic necessity. As temporary war workers they have taken jobs left open by lack of men, but they have been moved to do so not alone by patriotism or the opportunity for gain, but in numberless cases so as to support themselves or their families. Many such women for the same reason will remain in industry after the war. They will have to maintain families deprived by the war of male wage-earners or will have to share the burden with returning husbands who have been partially or totally disabled. Many women in the Americas will have no prospect of marriage because of the removal of men from home communities, and most of these women will demand jobs because they will have to be self-supporting. Modern economy scarcely permits the average family to enjoy the time-honored luxury of maintaining a maiden aunt, while a few self-respecting modern women, even in the most traditional countries, willingly accept the career.

Labor legislation affecting women in the other American republics is in general fairly complete. There is no labor legislation discriminatory against women in the United States, but some statutes of other American republics have that character. This excludes prohibitory laws of a protective nature, such as those forbidding the employment of women underground as miners and in other dangerous occupations. The prime unsolved problem of labor legislation with respect to women today in the Latin American countries is that of

wages. In a number of American nations the tendency persists to establish a lower minimum wage for women than for men doing equivalent work. Justice and equity demand that the wage be established in accordance with the job, regardless of whether a man or a woman performs it. Legislation to this end, however, together with will and machinery for effective enforcement, is still lacking in many parts of the continent, not excepting some regions in the United States. The Mexico City recommendations ask the respective American governments to take steps for the correction of those conditions.

It was recommended in the Declaration of Social Principles that the American republics adopt as a matter of international public interest social legislation protecting the working population, and specific reference was made to the need for legislation on the work of women and of minors, for the protection of maternity and for organization of hospital and maternity services for benefit of the workers and their families.

Although the position of women with regard to labor, civil, and political legislation in the United States is more satisfactory than in most of the other American republics, those countries generally speaking have gone further in the adoption of maternity-benefit laws than has the United States. The Latin American delegates at Mexico City were particularly interested also in emphasizing the importance of the family as they worked out the terms of resolutions on social matters which became part of the record of the Conference.

Protection of the Family

The Conference incorporated in its Declaration of Social Principles of America the postulate that the family as a social unit is a fundamental institution, placing upon the government of states the necessity of adopting measures to assure family moral stability, economic improvement of the family, and its social welfare.

Again the Conference referred to the family in its declaration on social questions. It held that the welfare of the family as the greatest molding force in the mind and character of youth must be a primary objective of national and international policy, along with social justice, good labor standards and relations, and the welfare of the individual citizen. The Conference recommended that the forthcoming Inter-American Technical Economic Conference give special at-

tention, among other questions of a social character, to the problems of adjustment from war to peace as they affect family life as well as individual welfare, to housing in relation to family life, and to development of services for children and youth. It was recommended that all the American republics adhere and give full support to the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood.

The latter institution has given study to the problem of providing homes and care for the millions of children, many completely orphaned, whose lives have been disrupted by the war. Acting on a resolution introduced by Señora Castillo Ledón of Mexico, the Conference recommended that the Institute give special attention, in cooperation with the Pan American Union and other international organizations, to the way in which the American republics can help in providing care and opportunities for European children left without homes and in dire circumstances.

The Peaceful Orientation of Coming Citizens

Two subjects which received special consideration at Mexico City fall within the scope of women's more traditional interests. These are education and health. The Conference particularly stressed the humanitarian obligation and international necessity of assuring decent living conditions, adequate food supply, and health protection as essential elements for a peaceful world. It likewise referred in two strong resolutions to the superlative importance of the education of children for the responsibilities of citizenship and of the orientation of minds toward international understanding, cooperation, and peace. The Conference adopted as its twenty-ninth resolution a recommendation for the revision of official textbooks by the American republics so as to delete anything supporting racial or totalitarian theories or anything which might tend to jeopardize the inter-American system and so as to base the teaching in the schools of the Americas on the democratic principles of peace, justice, and equality between states and individuals upon which the inter-American system is founded.

The Conference also incorporated in its Final Act a declaration on the Peaceful Orientation of the American Peoples, stating that future measures designed to safeguard peace cannot be fully effective unless they "respond to a spiritual need

of the nations that consciously and voluntarily cooperate in their application". The Conference held that it must be one of the essential activities of the period of world reconstruction to disseminate the ideals of peace to suppress factors contributing to the spread of hatred among nations. It was recommended that the American states promote this object through the primary schools of the nations, mentioning the contents of the Mexico City declaration on peaceful orientation in their relevant educational programs and joining in procuring wide dissemination of the text of the declaration, not only in countries of this hemisphere but among other nations as well. Additionally, the resolution provides that the Pan American Union shall study the possibility of creating an agency for peaceful orientation and of recommending the establishment of national commissions for peaceful orientation to complement the activities of the projected world body.

The intimate connection of women with primary teaching and public instruction throughout all the countries of this hemisphere will place a profound responsibility upon them in the interpretation of these unprecedented and far-reaching international recommendations.

Certainly the task of reconstructing the world physically and morally after the colossal destruction of the war and the task of rearing new generations oriented in mind and spirit toward the ideals of peace and democracy will call for the most earnest efforts and for many of the peculiar talents of women. Justice, equity, experience, common sense, and the world's dire needs all support the case for removing the barriers to the exercise of full civil and political rights by the women of all nations. The Mexico City resolutions appear to have carried the Americas, at least, a long step forward toward that goal.

El Salvador Ratifies Charter

The American Ambassador at San Salvador has informed the Acting Secretary of State by a telegram of July 11 that El Salvador has ratified the Charter of the United Nations. The Charter was passed unanimously by the Salvadoran National Assembly and promulgated by the President of El Salvador on July 10, 1945.

Papers Relating to the Foreign Relations of the United States, 1930, vols. II and III (publication nos. 2319, 2330). Washington, Government Printing Office, 1945, xciii, 797 pp.; xc, 904 pp. \$2.25 each. [For review of vol. I, see BULLETIN of Mar. 4, 1945, p. 330.]

From China to Venezuela in American

THE FOREIGN RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES during the 1930 period are traced in two additional volumes of diplomatic correspondence between the United States and other governments with the release of *Papers Relating to the Foreign Relations of the United States, 1930*, volumes II and III.¹ The following account reviews the material as presented in those two volumes.

The significance of 1930 as the end of the first decade following the Paris Peace Conference of 1919 may be found in the record of American relations with the recent Axis partners—Germany and Japan. In 1930 no disturbing element intruded: relations were normal; but already there were signs of the coming “fateful decade” of 1931–41 in the Nazi emergence in Germany.

Europe—Germany

AS A POTENTIAL THREAT in the middle of Europe, the increasing strength of the Nazi Party under Adolf Hitler was evident. In a series of interpretive reports the American Embassy at Berlin made that fact clear in the period after September 15. Commenting on the German Reichstag election of mid-September, the American Chargé d’Affaires, George A. Gordon, declared the result to be undoubtedly “another overpowering example of Germany’s lack of political education and wisdom and a body-blow to the republican form of government” (III, 79).

In the national election, out of an electorate of 43,000,000, a total vote of 35,000,000 was cast: The Nazis polled nearly 6,500,000 of these, winning second place in the Reichstag (107 seats to 143 for the Social Democrats); next came the Catholic Center and Bavarian People’s Party with over 5,000,000 votes; the communists tallied 4,600,000; and Hugenberg Nationalists’ votes totaled 2,500,000 (III, 76). Hugenberg’s block was to join Hitler’s in January 1933, to form their first

government of the Third Reich. But the size of the Hitler showing was a surprise at the time, even to the Nazis themselves (III, 77).

Mr. Gordon telegraphed the Department as early as September 15 that the “enormous gains” made by the two extremist parties, Nazis and Communists, indicated a prevailing “disgust and recklessness” among the German voters with existing conditions and the democratic party system (III, 76). The unfortunate part of the matter was that by this protest vote the Germans were increasing the difficulties of their republican Government and impairing foreign confidence in German stability, whether financial or political (III, 78). Nevertheless, as Mr. Gordon pointed out, a “body-blow is not necessarily a knock-out blow,” although some 13,000,000 German voters had expressed their hostility to the Weimar Republic (III, 79).

With reference to the current interest in the responsibility of German industrialists for the Nazi movement, Mr. Gordon noted the “very substantial financial support” given Hitler by “certain large industrial interests” and assumed that this “secret support” from a portion of Germany’s heavy industry not only was due to opposition to the Social Democrats and Communists but also probably had a “restraining” influence upon the Nazi extremists (III, 84).

Soon after the election, Hitler gave testimony at a treason trial at Leipzig and, replying to a query regarding how he proposed to get rid of vexatious treaties, declared: “Of course, only through diplomatic negotiations, and, if it cannot be accomplished in any other way, by complete circumvention of these treaties by legal, and if needs be, by illegal means” (III, 87).

In November’s local elections the Nazis made further gains, “far exceeding” those of the Communists, while other parties lost ground. Particularly interesting were the Nazi gains in the Danzig Diet, in which they also won second place. All these tests, according to Ambassador Sackett

¹ Vol. I was released on Mar. 11 of this year and included documents relating to Argentina, Austria, Bolivia, Brazil, Bulgaria, Canada, and Chile.

Foreign Relations for the Year 1930

Reviewed by VICTOR J. FARRAR and JOHN GILBERT REID²

at Berlin on December 3, constituted "an impressive warning" of what might happen if another general election became unavoidable in the near future (III, 91).

Meanwhile, in the course of the year's diplomatic relations between the United States and Germany, the latter on November 20 presented its views to Secretary Stimson on the subject of disarmament and the Kellogg-Briand pact, signed at Paris on August 27, 1928.³ In a statement Ambassador von Prittwitz emphasized that "*The German Government's policy does not aim at increasing Germany's armament but at equality through disarmament*" (III, 95). He concluded his verbal communication by referring to extension of the Pact of Paris in the direction of "consultation" and said that his Government, "one of the original signatories of the Pact, would gladly cooperate and assume that it would be given the opportunity to express their views" (III, 96).

The German Ambassador explained that his Government was prepared "to take any step that would avoid war and promote international justice", and he felt that such an implementation of the treaty to renounce war was desirable. Secretary Stimson remarked that international public opinion was the sole sanction allowed the Kellogg pact, although to clarify such opinion in an "obscure case" there might well be added a provision for "impartial investigation and report without any decision". Such a suggestion had been made by Mr. Stimson in July 1929 during the first stages of the Sino-Soviet dispute over the Chinese Eastern Railway in North Manchuria,⁴ but the idea had not been "pushed" at that time (III, 92-3).

In discussing the matter, the Secretary of State further pointed out that consultation should "not involve by implication any promise of military assistance or even pressure of any other kind than public opinion." The United States could not support any such consultative clause. The Ambassador agreed with this response (III, 93).

Far East—Japan

THE ALMOST PLACID RELATIONS with Japan were indicated in an exchange of views between Japanese Ambassador Debuchi and Secretary of State Stimson and Assistant Secretary of State Castle. On October 30, as Mr. Stimson records, the Japanese Ambassador told him "that when he came here there were two subjects which he was anxious to help settle. One was the Naval Treaty [I, 1 *et seq.*; text, 107-25]—the other was the immigration question.⁵ The Naval Treaty had been settled and that left only the immigration question." Mr. Stimson, replying, said he was as anxious as Debuchi "that the sore spot created by the immigration question should be dissolved and that intercourse between his country and mine should be free from any irritation upon the subject" (III, 315).

In speaking to Mr. Castle on November 4, Mr. Debuchi added a third matter of mutual interest, "misunderstandings over China", and remarked "that there seemed no longer to be any Chinese question between the two Governments. Japan's attitude toward China was practically identical with that of the United States." Regarding the immigration question, Mr. Debuchi said he wanted his talk with Mr. Castle to be "entirely unofficial and secret, that he should not telegraph his Government anything about it, but would write a personal letter to Baron Shidehara", the Japanese Foreign Minister. After discussing the problem "from all angles", Mr. Debuchi "said it seemed to him that all the psychological elements were present to make a change in the law⁶ successful at the

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³ *Foreign Relations*, 1928, vol. I, p. 153. References to 1930 vols. I, II, and III are retained in the text.

⁴ *Foreign Relations*, 1929, vol. II, pp. 186-435, especially p. 242.

⁵ *Ibid.*, 1924, vol. II, pp. 333 *et seq.*

⁶ Approved May 26, 1924 (43 Stat. 153).

present time and that if it could not be effected in the next session of Congress he would feel there was little hope." Mr. Castle "told him that he should not have this feeling because the next, or short session of Congress, which might well be very turbulent, was not a good time to get through legislation. I pointed out that obviously nothing must be done until we were sure of a favorable result since a reaffirmation of the exclusion would be worse than the original law" (III, 316).

On November 28 the Ambassador again spoke to Mr. Castle and suggested that it was "an excellent opportunity at this time to put Japan on the quota". Further conversation, however, led Mr. Debuchi to recognize the wisdom of avoiding "a reaffirmation of the exclusion clause", namely, Section 13(c), by bringing the matter up prematurely in Congress (III, 317).

In December, on the other hand, the continuing rivalry between Japanese and Chinese rail interests in Manchuria clearly foreshadowed a possible clash there within the measurable future. This clash was to be precipitated on September 18, 1931, by Japanese military action at Mukden,⁷ following an increasing series of incidents susceptible to negotiation if a peaceful solution had been desired. However, before the close of 1930 the Department already was receiving reports from the Far East on the lack of cooperation between Japanese and Chinese railway interests in Manchuria.

On December 15 the American Ambassador at Tokyo, W. Cameron Forbes, reported that the Japanese Foreign Office was endeavoring to effect a solution of the rail question through negotiation. The Japanese press suspected the Chinese Nationalist Government of planning the elimination of Japanese interests in Manchuria by one means or another (II, 303-4, 308). An officer of the Tokyo Foreign Office informed a member of the American Embassy that the Chinese were expected to accept certain "generous proposals" of the South Manchuria Railway, Japan's principal investment in South Manchuria. But he was anxious to discover whether by chance any American or other foreign funds might be back of Chinese railway projects in that region (II, 305). The Japanese, Mr. Tani explained, would not tolerate a serious assault by the Chinese upon the Japanese railway

interests in Manchuria, which were regarded as "a matter of life and death to the Japanese people" (II, 306).

Far East—China

EVENTS IN CHINA DURING 1930 seem today very distant, a far cry from the undeclared war of 1937 and the Pacific war of 1941. Fifteen years ago the Chinese scene was full of rumors of civil strife and of actual "civil wars", including the setting-up of rival governments (II, 1-80). Among the well-known political names of 1930 were Chiang Kai-shek, Yen Hsi-shan, Feng Yu-hsiang, Wang Ching-wei, and Chang Hsueh-liang; there were also the Kwangsi and Kwangtung generals and the so-called "Reds". The biggest diplomatic issue between China and the "treaty Powers" was extra-territoriality. Even the exchange rate in May 1930 (II, 16) sounds prehistoric in 1945, while in 1930 Chiang's troops were receiving advice from German military advisers and American aviators (II, 18-19, 23-5).

Wang Ching-wei, whom the Japanese later called "President of the National Government of the Republic of China" and who died not long ago, was civilian head of the "independent" government set up at Peking in 1930; Yen and Feng were his military backers. Chang remained neutral at Mukden until September, when he swept down once more south of the Great Wall to occupy Peking, the ancient imperial capital. The Yen-Feng-Wang regime evaporated; Chang and Chiang restored Chinese territory to the allegiance of the National Government at Nanking. The next year, while still at Peiping, Chang was to lose his Manchurian domain to Japan.

During the period of the Peking regime, the integrity of China's customs and salt-revenue administrations was threatened when new men were appointed in place of men installed by the Nanking government. Among the foreign powers interested in this development was Japan, which was concerned lest the customs administration be undermined (II, 247-48, 251-52). After 1931 in Manchuria the Japanese were to proceed along lines reminiscent of those in North China during 1930.⁸

Among incidents involving jurisdiction over American nationals in China was the Chinese Government's request in 1929 for the deportation of Hallett Abend, Far Eastern correspondent of the

⁷ *Foreign Relations, Japan, 1931-1941*, vol. I, pp. 1 et seq.

⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 729 et seq.

New York Times.⁹ In 1930 after Mr. Abend's return to Shanghai from a brief home leave, Chinese Foreign Minister C. T. Wang again brought up the Abend case in a conversation with American Minister Nelson T. Johnson (II, 564). Dr. Wang referred to published reports that Mr. Abend had stated in Shanghai his impression that many American businessmen at home were in favor of "intervention in China". This statement, Dr. Wang felt, made Mr. Abend's return to China "a direct challenge to the Chinese". In reply to a request for removal from China of the offending correspondent, Mr. Johnson explained that he knew "of no way whereby either I or the Government at home could legally cause the deportation of Mr. Abend from China as deportation was not a process recognized under our law". Dr. Wang understood this situation and remarked that "China would have quickly shown Mr. Abend the door" if extraterritoriality had already been abolished.

Latin America

THE MAIN CURRENTS of our Latin American foreign relations for 1930 fall into three categories: (1) problems arising from current revolutions; (2) problems arising from commitments made in the past to countries passing through revolutions, i. e., Haiti and Nicaragua; and (3) good offices in conciliating disputes.

(1) Problems arising from current revolutions

Widespread unemployment brought instability and unrest to many countries of Latin America. In 1930, according to documents in the volumes, there were six revolutions: in Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, and Peru. Space does not permit a review of all the problems arising from those revolutions. One problem, common to all, however, was that of recognition. A statement of policy was made by Secretary Stimson on September 17, 1930.

In reaching the conclusion to accord recognition to the Governments of Argentina, Bolivia, and Peru Mr. Stimson stated that he was satisfied that these provisional governments were *de facto* in control of their respective countries, that there was no active resistance to their rule, and that they intended to fulfil their international obligations and in due course would hold elections to regularize their status. He stated further that this action in recognizing those Governments did not repre-

sent any new policy or change of policy toward the nations of South America or the rest of the world, but that the United States was following the regular rules of international law and the regular policy which had characterized this country ever since Mr. Jefferson in the administration of President Washington announced it.

He added, however, that with certain countries there were differences made by treaty either with the United States or among themselves. As an example of the latter, the five Central American republics in 1923 agreed among themselves by treaty not to recognize any government which came into office by a *coup d'état* or revolution. And he stated that while the United States was not a party to the treaty we were in accord with it and agreed we would follow the same policy with respect to the five Central American republics (I, 387-88). For that reason, the United States did not recognize the revolutionary regime in Guatemala (III, 183).

(2) Problems arising from previous commitments

HAITI. By the treaty of September 16, 1915,¹⁰ at a time when Haiti was in a state of near chaos following revolutions, the United States had agreed to assist the Government "to remedy the present condition of its revenues and finances, to maintain the tranquility of the Republic, to carry out plans for the economic development and prosperity of the Republic and its people". By virtue of that treaty and subsequent agreements there was inaugurated in Haiti by Americans a number of services such as Service Technique, Travaux Publics, Garde d'Haiti, Service d'Hygiène, and Service Financier.¹¹ These services were known as "treaty services" and were headed by Americans known as "treaty officials". The treaty officials would train and would promote Haitians in these services to the end that when the treaty should have expired the Americans could be replaced by Haitians.

Despite the fact that Haiti under this arrangement had made great progress, there was pronounced opposition to American occupation and guidance. On October 31, 1929, students at the agricultural college at Damien, which was under the Service Technique, went on strike.¹² Advan-

⁹ *Ibid.*, 1929, vol. II, pp. 760 *et seq.*

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, 1916, pp. 328 *et seq.*

¹¹ *Ibid.*, 1929, vol. III, p. 167.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 207.

tage was taken of the situation to foment disturbances against the Haitian administration, and it was feared that the Haitian employees of the other services under American treaty officials might become involved. In the situation, the President of the United States in messages dated December 3 and 7¹³ requested Congress to authorize the immediate sending of a commission for the study and review of conditions in the Republic. This was done. On February 4, 1930, the President set forth the purposes and powers of the Commission:

"The primary question which is to be investigated is when and how we are to withdraw from Haiti. The second question is what we shall do in the meantime. . . .

"As I have stated before, I have no desire for representation of the American Government abroad through our military forces" (III, 217).

The Commission arrived at Port-au-Prince on February 28, 1930, left Haiti on March 16, and made its report on March 26. It recommended among other things "That the President declare that the United States will approve a policy, the details of which all the United States officials in Haiti are directed to assist in working out, providing for an increasingly rapid Haitianization of the services, with the object of having Haitians experienced in every department of the Government ready to take over full responsibility at the expiration of the existing treaty" (III, 217, 236-37).

This recommendation became the key to subsequent policy.

The Commission also found the political situation critical. The legislative chambers had been dissolved in 1918 and the country was ruled by a President and Council of State. The members of the Council of State were appointed by the President, and the Council of State elected the President. The Council of State functioned as the legislative power. Representatives of various "patriotic leagues" in Haiti stated that they would not accept any election of President by the Council of State.

The Commission thereupon in concurrence with the American High Commissioner evolved a plan for the restoration of representative government: The plan was for President Borno to secure the

election of a compromise candidate by the Council of State; the new President would agree to call the election of representatives to the two chambers of the legislature and present his resignation; the two chambers sitting as a national assembly would then elect the permanent President. This was done. Two other important recommendations which the Commission made were that the office of High Commissioner be abolished and a non-military minister be appointed to take over the duties of that office as well as those of diplomatic representative, and that the new minister be charged with the duty of carrying out the early Haitianization of the services (III, 237). Just before he went out of office President Borno wrote, "Despite all biased utterances the Intervention of the United States has been beneficial to Haiti:—History will so record" (III, 251).

The foregoing account of measures looking toward the liquidation of the treaty of September 6, 1915 is set forth in volume III of *Foreign Relations*, 1930, as follows:

"The President's Commission for the Study and Review of Conditions in the Republic of Haiti"; "Assumption by the Minister in Haiti of Functions Previously Exercised by the American High Commissioner"; and "Negotiations Between the United States and Haiti for the Haitianization of the Treaty Services".

NICARAGUA. A somewhat similar situation had developed in Nicaragua. In 1927 that country was facing ruin following civil war. In the interest of peace President Coolidge sent Henry L. Stimson to Nicaragua as his personal representative. Stimson reported that the solution of the problem would be a supervision of elections by Americans, for the Government regularly in power could and did control the result of elections, and that the greatest inducement that could be offered to Liberal leaders to agree to an early peace would be the knowledge that the United States should supervise the elections of 1928, exercising sufficient police powers for that purpose. Both the Government and Liberal leaders had indicated to him that they would gladly request such police power.¹⁴

On May 4 and 11, at Tipitapa, Mr. Stimson conferred with General Moncada, the leader of the revolutionary forces. The result was the so-called "Tipitapa agreement", which provided among other things for American supervision of the election of 1928 and the establishment of a non-

¹³ *Ibid.*, 1929, vol. I, p. v, and vol. III, p. 207.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, 1927, vol. III, pp. 323, 324.

partisan constabulary trained by American officers which should have the duty of securing a fair election. The United States agreed to leave a sufficient force of Marines until after the election to support the constabulary and insure peace.¹⁵ After the Government of President Díaz had accepted this arrangement, the most important provisions were incorporated in a letter handed to General Moncada by Mr. Stimson on May 11. The provisions of the agreement were carried out. Just before the election the presidential candidates of both parties agreed that the victorious candidate, whoever he might be, would ask the United States to supervise the congressional election of 1930 and the presidential election of 1932 in order to assure peace in Nicaragua during the approaching four years. It was in consequence of this agreement that the United States supervised the congressional election of 1930.

Unforeseen, however, was the defection of Sandino, one of Moncada's generals, who broke his promise to turn in his arms.¹⁶ He turned bandit and proceeded to launch attacks upon the northern provinces. Since these attacks could not be wholly repelled by the Guardia, the Nicaraguan Government was obliged to request aid from the American Marines. Thus the United States became further committed in Nicaragua.

Two stories in the volumes of *Foreign Relations*, 1930, relate to the status of these commitments: "Assistance by the United States in the Supervision of Elections in Nicaragua" and "Proposals for Amending the Agreement Establishing the Guardia Nacional de Nicaragua and for Reducing Expenses".

In 1930 the liquidation of these commitments became the concern of the United States.

The situation had changed: Mr. Stimson had become Secretary Stimson and General Moncada, President Moncada. In 1929 and 1930 the Nicaraguan authorities proceeded to make certain amendments to the Guardia agreement, some of which threatened not only to impair its efficiency but also to detract from its non-partisan character. In one of his letters to President Moncada setting forth the unwisdom of some of the amendments as well as other actions against the Guardia, on November 24 Secretary Stimson wrote:

"At this point, I feel bound to remind you that the time is rapidly approaching when it will be necessary for the United States Government to

withdraw its Marine forces and officers from Nicaragua. The presence of those forces have always necessarily created an abnormal situation and one which can not be permanent. They have remained there at the request of both parties of your country solely because of the sincere desire of my Government to assist you temporarily in the solution of these crucial and fundamental problems. I can not see how they can remain later than to assist you in carrying out the elections of November, 1932. This country will then have helped Nicaragua for five years to police its territory and to keep banditry in check. Public opinion in this country will hardly support a further continuance of that situation. The result of these controlling factors necessarily indicates that the problem of these Northern Provinces must be solved by that date" (III, 686).

(3) *Good offices in conciliating disputes*

Actions by the United States in conciliating disputes will be found in volume I of the 1930 papers, under the headings of "Chaco Dispute Between Bolivia and Paraguay"; and "Boundary disputes: Guatemala and Honduras" and "Honduras and Nicaragua".

Treaties and Agreements

NUMEROUS NEGOTIATIONS WERE CONDUCTED during 1930 in regard to treaties and agreements between the United States and foreign governments. The following treaties were concluded: On arbitration with China, Greece, Iceland, Latvia, and the Netherlands; on conciliation with Greece and Latvia; on dual nationality and military service with Norway; on extradition with Germany; on prohibition of liquor smuggling with Poland; on United States rights in Iraq with Great Britain and Iraq; and on the boundary between British Borneo and the Philippines with Great Britain. Negotiations for treaties were carried on in different stages of development with Great Britain, Australia, and New Zealand respecting property rights; with China respecting relinquishment of extraterritorial rights; with France respecting double taxation; with Turkey respecting establishment and sojourn; with Great Britain respecting revision of the Muscat treaty of 1833 concerning Zanzibar; and with Mexico respecting the boundary of the Rio Grande.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 345.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 344.

Agreements were signed respecting the Shanghai courts with China and certain other powers; on regulating commercial relations provisionally with Egypt and Rumania; on war indebtedness with Germany; on double income tax with Spain; on arbitration of certain claims with Sweden; and on ship-measurement certificates with Poland. Negotiations proceeded for agreements on claims with Mexico and Spanish Morocco; on Haitianization of the treaty services with Haiti; on the national guard and on a railway survey with Nicaragua; and on naturalization with Finland.

Volumes II and III for 1930 contain 1,650 pages of text, consisting of 1,668 separate documents in 112 chapters of subject-matter. These pages carry United States foreign relations by countries alphabetically from China to Venezuela. If subdivided regionally, the material might be summarized as follows: American republics: 473 documents in 25

chapters of 454 pages; Europe: 185 documents in 31 chapters of 274 pages; Far East: 724 documents in 33 chapters of 652 pages; and Near East (with Africa and India): 296 documents in 23 chapters of 270 pages.

By countries space in these two volumes is not evenly distributed. For example, China takes 640 pages; Liberia, 133 pages; Mexico, 125 pages; Haiti, 83 pages; Nicaragua, 75 pages; France, 70 pages; and Germany, 58 pages. On the other hand, Japan and Italy take only 3 pages each. However, many chapters, such as those devoted to China, are international in scope and cover relations with other powers than China and the United States. Therefore, it is necessary to consult the indexes and the lists of papers rather than merely the tables of contents in order to locate material concerning the various countries.

Publication of "Papers Relating to the Foreign Relations of the United States, 1930", Volumes II and III

[Released to the press July 22]

The Department of State released on July 22 volumes II and III of the 1930 set of diplomatic papers covering American relations with other States, entitled *Papers Relating to the Foreign Relations of the United States, 1930*. Volume I of the set was released last March 11.

The earlier volume of the current set contained documents pertaining to general subjects, such as international conferences in which the United States participated, including the London Naval Conference, as well as the correspondence with Argentina, Austria, Bolivia, Brazil, Bulgaria, Canada, and Chile. These volumes cover the relations of the United States with the remaining countries of the world.

During 1930 American relations with other states were cordial and little marred by tension or controversy. This was true despite the fact that the year was marked by turbulence in many countries. The darkening clouds of the depression continued to gather; unrest and turmoil characterized the internal economic and political life in many sections of the globe. Six revolutions occurred in Latin America; instability, accompanied by internecine warfare, characterized China. These developments and conditions are reflected in both the large number of documents

included and the detailed reports contained therein. The number of documents dealing with the other American republics constitutes approximately 30 percent of those included in the two volumes. The correspondence with China and with other powers—such as Great Britain, France, and Japan—concerning China comprises the largest single group of documents in the volume.

The relations of the United States with the countries that later came to constitute the Axis required relatively little space, but the documents covering developments in Germany are both detailed and important. These documents record the rise in importance of the Nazi Party to its position as the second largest party in the Reichstag and the beginning of its march to power.

Volumes II and III present a picture of a period that may be characterized as a "lull before the storm". The conditions and the forces which later gave rise to devastating upheavals in foreign countries are clearly set forth in the diplomatic reports from the field collected in these volumes.

Copies of volume II (xciii, 797 pp.) and volume III (xc, 904 pp.) may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents for \$2.25 each. Copies of volume I (lxxv, 564 pp.) may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents for \$1.75 each.

Representation by Swiss Government of Japanese Interests in United States

ACCEPTANCE OF REQUEST FROM SWISS LEGATION

[Released to the press July 23]

In response to an inquiry from the Swiss Legation whether this Government would be agreeable to the assumption by the Swiss Government of the representation of Japanese interests in the United States, except Hawaii, the Department of State has informed the Swiss Legation that the United States Government has no objection to such an assumption of the protection of Japanese interests by the Swiss Government. The Swedish Government protects Japanese interests in the Territory of Hawaii.

Since late March 1945 when the Spanish Government relinquished the protection of Japanese interests in the continental United States,¹ the Japanese Government has been without neutral representation in the United States. As distinct from the interruption of the representation of Japanese interests in the United States, the Swiss Government has continued to represent American interests in Japan and Japanese-occupied territory, as it has since the beginning of the war.

The Japanese Government has placed many restrictions upon the activities of Swiss officials representing our interests in the areas under its control and in some cases has even refused to permit Swiss and other neutral representatives to visit prisoner-of-war and civilian-internee camps in the Far East where Americans were held.

The Swiss Legation at Washington told the Department of State that the Swiss Government would not agree to represent Japanese interests in the United States until it had received from the Japanese Government agreement in principle to permit Swiss representatives to visit all camps where American nationals are held in Japan and areas now occupied by the Japanese armed forces. These conditions were presented to the Japanese, and the Japanese War Ministry told the Swiss Government that it agreed in principle to permit the Swiss Minister in Japan to visit prisoner-of-war camps in Japan and Japanese-occupied territories.

When these camps have been visited this Government will be able to obtain from the Swiss Government more complete reports of the conditions under which Americans are held by the Japanese. It is hoped that Japanese treatment of American nationals will thereby be improved. For these reasons the United States Government is glad to have the Swiss Government assume the protection of Japanese interests in the United States.

The United States Government in accordance with its treaty obligations and international commitments permits representatives of the protecting powers to visit all camps where enemy nationals are held.

EXCHANGE OF COMMUNICATIONS BETWEEN SWISS LEGATION AND DEPARTMENT OF STATE

[Released to the press July 23]

JULY 17, 1945

SIR:

I have the honor to inform you that the Japanese Government has asked the Swiss Federal Council to take charge of the Japanese interests in the United States (with the exception of Hawaii) for the duration of the war. Subject to American consent, the Swiss Government has declared its willingness to assume this responsibility.

I should be very much obliged, therefore, if you would be good enough to advise me whether the American Government is prepared to give the consent sought by my Government.

Accept [etc.]

GRASSLI

*Charge d'Affaires of Switzerland
ad interim*

The Honorable

JOSEPH C. GREW

*Acting Secretary of State
Washington, D. C.*

¹ BULLETIN of Apr. 8, 1945, p. 649.

JULY 21, 1945

SIR:

I acknowledge the receipt of your note dated July 17, 1945 stating that the Japanese Government has asked the Swiss Federal Council to take charge of Japanese interests in the United States, with the exception of Hawaii, for the duration of the war. It is noted that subject to the assent of the United States Government, the Swiss Government has declared its willingness to assume this responsibility.

The Government of the United States is agreeable to the representation by the Swiss Government of Japanese interests in the United States with the exception of the Territory of Hawaii where the Swedish Government will continue to represent those interests.

Accept [etc.]

JOSEPH C. GREW
Acting Secretary of State

MR. MAX GRÄSSL, *Charge d'Affaires ad interim*
of Switzerland

Psychologist Accepts Visiting Professorship to Brazil

[Released to the press July 17]

Otto Klineberg, professor of psychology at Columbia University in New York, has accepted a visiting professorship at the University of São Paulo, Brazil, where he will help found a department of psychology. His special field is social psychology, and he has done extensive research on racial differences, the effect of environment on intelligence and personality, and the relations between culture and psychology. At São Paulo he will give general lectures and conduct seminars while laying the groundwork for the new university department. He is taking with him a compact but comprehensive library of psychological works, especially rich in reprints and other material difficult to obtain through the usual channels.

Dr. Klineberg has recently returned from a three months' mission in England, France, and Germany for the War Department. Among his published books are *Social Psychology* and *Race Differences*. In 1944 he contributed to and edited

a volume entitled *Characteristics of the American Negro*.

Panama - United States Fellowship Program

[Released to the press July 16]

The Department of State announced on July 16 that a Panama-United States fellowship program involving 15 fellowships for study in the United States by Panamanian citizens will be undertaken as the result of discussions between the Government of Panama and the Government of the United States.

The 15 candidates for these fellowships will pursue work in fields of study decided upon by the Panamanian Government, the preferred fields being social work, food chemistry, city planning, refrigeration, radio television, veterinary medicine, organization of boys' and girls' vocational schools, civil service, and social security.

Under the terms of the agreement the Government of Panama will pay the travel expenses of the 15 students from their place of residence to the place of study in the United States and return, and maintenance expenses for 5 of these students for 12 months. The United States Government has agreed to pay the maintenance expenses of the remaining 10 students for 12 months, and tuition for an orientation period not to exceed 2 months for all 15 students. The Institute of International Education, a private organization with headquarters in New York City, will endeavor to obtain a fellowship for each candidate at appropriate institutions of higher learning and to supervise the candidates while in the United States.

The candidates will be chosen by a Panama-United States Fellowship and Scholarship Selection Committee appointed by agreement between the two Governments. Upon the arrival of the recipients of the 15 fellowships in the United States, they will be given an orientation course in the language and customs of the United States.

Announcement of the program is being made simultaneously in Panama and the United States, and it is expected that the successful candidates will arrive in the United States on or about January 1, 1946, beginning their academic study following approximately one month of orientation.

Displaced Persons in Germany: Present Operations¹

[Released to the press by the War Department July 5]

The gigantic task of locating, registering, housing, feeding, and finally repatriating displaced persons is being rapidly cleared away in the Allied zone in Germany, and present prospects are that the problem will be substantially reduced within the next two months, it was announced on July 5.

The announcement was made by the Honorable John J. McCloy, Assistant Secretary of War and chairman of the Combined Civil Affairs Committee, Anglo-American Group, charged by the Combined Chiefs of Staff with the military responsibility of handling civilian problems contingent with and occurring in the wake of battle.

The problem of displaced persons—including prisoners of war in Germany, political and racial prisoners, and slave laborers—was one of the most complicated and urgent matters facing the Allies when they overran Germany and the Wehrmacht collapsed. Millions of persons of every nationality and every walk of life glutted the roads. Concentration camps were filled with helpless people. Many were starved and sick. All had but one goal—to get home.

The Allies uncovered almost 5,800,000 displaced persons. As of July 2, 3,260,000 of these had been repatriated to their home countries. Another 2,530,000 were being cared for in Allied displaced-persons camps awaiting repatriation or clarification of their nationality status, and another small group was estimated to be living outside displaced-persons camps.

All reports indicate steady improvement in the handling of displaced persons, and SHAEF has estimated that the entire problem may resolve itself by September 1 into caring for the residual of non-repatriables and stateless persons.

As of June 22, the number of persons repatriated, by nationalities, included: French—1,243,600, of whom 142,693 were returned to France by air; Russian—1,393,902; Belgians—247,790, of whom 11,826 were repatriated by air; Dutch—195,000; Italian—

136,043; Czechoslovak—33,488; Yugoslav—2,051; Luxemburgers—6,000.

Of the 2,530,000 displaced persons still not repatriated, by far the largest group is Russian. The reason for this is that there was no feasible method of repatriating Russians until the German defeat and the Russians and Allies linked their fronts. Ratification on May 22 of the Leipzig agreement,² through which the Allied military authorities agreed on a repatriation policy, is resulting in fast repatriation of Russians. Under this plan, a system of delivering displaced persons through Army lines at agreed reception-delivery points, ten on each side of the present USSR-SHAEF line, was set up. The effect of the agreement is illustrated by these figures. As of May 26, about 160,000 Russians had been turned over by the 21st and 12th Army Groups. By June 17, that figure had gone to 1,287,530.

Persons of French nationality comprised one of the largest displaced groups in Germany. The success of the displaced-persons program is illustrated by the fact that, of 1,249,282 French uncovered in the SHAEF zone within Germany, only about 40,552 remained to be repatriated as of June 18.

Behind these figures of the uncovering of 5,790,000 displaced persons and the repatriating of 3,260,000 as of mid-June lies a story full of drama.

Vast, ragged, hungry armies of people roamed the German countryside, and the Allies had to bring order out of chaos—channel the movement of the people; control public safety; provide medicines, food, temporary housing, clothing; delouse the people in order to prevent louse-borne diseases; determine nationality status of displaced persons and initiate processes that would start them on their way home. There were also the matters of welfare and recreation, and in setting up displaced-persons camps the Allies took these two factors into consideration by providing proper sanitation facilities, the best available domestic conveniences, sports, recreation.

In German concentration camps were found starved, mentally numbed people in whom little life was left. Some had gone without food for so long that they would have died had they been allowed to eat normally. Facilities for intravenous feeding had to be supplied immediately. As

¹ See BULLETIN of June 3, 1945, p. 1014.

² The plan for the transfer through the Allied lines of former prisoners of war and displaced persons liberated by the Red Army and the Allied forces was signed May 22 by representatives of SHAEF and the Soviet High Command, effective May 23, implementing the Crimea agreement signed Feb. 11 at Yalta.

an example of emergency steps taken in behalf of these people, a nutrition consultant and 143 Belgian medical students were rushed with top priority to the camp at Belsen to feed intravenously persons in stages of advanced malnutrition. Similar emergency steps were taken throughout the SHAEF area.

Following are examples of special steps taken in the Allied zone to provide care and comfort for displaced persons:

Special displaced-persons hospitals were set up where those who were ill got the best medical care, food, and facilities available.

Mobile film units were circulated to displaced-persons camps so that the former prisoners of the Germans, who had been denied many of the bare necessities of life, let alone any relaxation, could be entertained with the latest available American and British motion pictures.

Special dusting apparatus was flown in to delouse displaced persons and prevent the spread of disease, including the dreaded typhus.

German medical supplies and German food stocks, both from civilian sources and captured enemy stocks, were earmarked for the alleviation of displaced-persons feeding problems.

Special truck convoys and trains were set up to bring Red Cross relief supplies, stockpiled in Switzerland, to Allied prisoners of war and displaced persons in Germany.

Displaced persons have received highly preferential treatment in Germany. Army groups were instructed to raise living conditions of displaced persons to a standard as high as resources allow without consideration of any adverse effect on living conditions of the German people. A SHAEF directive ordered that Germans would be moved out of their homes and into former German concentration camps to provide shelter for displaced persons in German houses if such action were necessary.

By the end of summer, the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, acting in behalf of and under agreement with military authorities, will have assumed virtually the entire manpower burden of handling displaced persons. The shift already has begun with UNRRA personnel now functioning in some 200 displaced-persons camps, 80 of them operated exclusively by UNRRA representatives. UNRRA is beginning to work its way into the problem by taking over on a camp-by-camp basis, and key personnel are

sitting alongside army officers so they can be absorbed in the present administrative set-up.

As of June 22, 280 UNRRA teams and 14 voluntary-agency teams were deployed throughout the Allied zone in Germany, and about 4,729 persons, mostly Europeans, had been recruited by UNRRA for displaced-persons work.

The displaced-persons problem soon will have reduced itself largely to a matter of caring for stateless persons, non-repatriables, and unaccompanied children, many born in concentration camps. These present an extremely difficult problem since they represent the "hard core" of displaced persons.

UNRRA eventually will hand the problem over to the Intergovernmental Committee on Refugees, which will have the task of finding places for stateless and non-repatriable persons—those people whom the Nazis and the war turned into men without countries. This problem must be worked out at intergovernmental levels and hence is beyond the province of either UNRRA or military authorities. These stateless persons, who comprise a comparatively small percentage of the displaced persons in Europe, must wait in camps until decisions are reached concerning their status and disposition.

General Eisenhower, at a press conference in Washington on June 18, said that the displaced-persons problem which faced the Allies when they overran Germany was "terrible". After reviewing how the problem was met, the Supreme Allied Commander said:

"It was a terrible job to get the organization set up to take those people out. When you talk about persons in that number, their feeding and their housing for the night at way-stations, and so on, you have got a real task. The personnel in charge of Displaced Persons have done it beautifully, and the process of getting them out has been working most efficiently."

Belgian Independence Day

[Released to the press July 21]

The President sent the following message on July 21 to Prince Charles, Regent of Belgium:

"I am happy to convey to you and to the Belgian people on this anniversary of Belgian Independence Day, the congratulations and best wishes of the people of the United States."

Limitation of the Production of Opium

EXCHANGE OF NOTES BETWEEN THE GOVERNMENTS OF THE UNITED STATES AND THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

The American Embassy at Moscow sent the following note dated September 18, 1944 to the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics:

EMBASSY OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

No. 426

Moscow, September 18, 1944

The Embassy of the United States of America presents its compliments to the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and has the honor to transmit to the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics a copy of Public Law 400, Seventy-eighth Congress of the United States of America, approved on July 1, 1944, in regard to the limitation of the production of opium to medicinal and scientific requirements.

The United States Government, of course, is aware that the Soviet Government has always exercised strict control over the production of the opium poppy and has permitted opium to be produced for medicinal and scientific purposes only. It is desired, however, at this time to draw the attention of the Soviet Government to changes in the world narcotics situation which have recently taken place, and to express the hope that the Soviet Government will cooperate with the other nations of the world in the solution of the opium problem.

As the Soviet Government is aware, a number of measures have become effective during the last twenty years to combat the abuse of narcotic drugs. Among these may be mentioned the coming into force of the Narcotics Limitation Convention of 1931, the prohibition at the end of 1935 of the exportation of opium from India to the Far East and the enactment by the Chinese Government in 1941 of laws prohibiting the cultivation of the opium poppy, the smoking of opium and all traffic in opium and narcotics except for medicinal purposes.

The Governments of the United Kingdom and the Netherlands, after pursuing for many years a policy of gradual suppression of the use of smok-

ing opium, announced on November 10, 1943 their decisions to prohibit the use of smoking opium in their Far Eastern territories when those territories are freed from Japanese occupation and not to reestablish their opium monopolies. Copies of these announcements, together with the statements made by spokesmen of the United States and Chinese Governments on November 10 and 24, 1943, respectively, commenting on those announcements, are attached hereto for convenience of reference.¹ Following the surrender of Japan, the United States Government, in cooperation with other interested governments, will do everything possible to prevent Japan and the Japanese from spreading the use of narcotics for the satisfaction of addiction.

After the war, as a result of the decisions of the British and Netherland Governments and the uncompromising attitude of the Chinese and United States Governments, there will be no legitimate market for smoking opium in a vast Far Eastern area. Consequently, in future, exports of opium will have to be limited to the demands of the world market for opium for medical and scientific requirements.

The United States Government concurs in the opinion of the British Government, as stated in its announcement of November 10, 1943, in regard to the prohibition of smoking opium in the Far East that "the success of the enforcement of prohibition will depend on the steps taken to limit and control the production of opium in other countries." In this connection the total requirements of the world for raw opium for the years 1933 to 1938, as computed from League of Nations documents O.C. 1781 (1), August 27, 1940 and O.C. 1758, April 15, 1939 are reproduced below:

	For manufactured narcotic drugs	For prepared opium	Total Kilograms
1933	227, 494	297, 325	524, 819
1934	245, 201	348, 503	593, 704
1935	255, 808	326, 047	581, 855
1936	323, 114	345, 949	668, 063
1937	343, 841	390, 148	733, 989
1938	312, 832	374, 248	687, 080

¹ Not printed.

During the period immediately after the war, it is estimated that the world market for opium for medicinal purposes will require about 400,000 kilograms of opium, whereas world production of raw opium for the year 1944 has been estimated by experts of this Government, in the absence of exact figures, as amounting to about 2,400,000 kilograms. There is also production in Central Europe of morphine direct from poppy straw totaling about 8,500 kilograms.

The United States Government believes that it is necessary to limit and control the cultivation of the opium poppy in order to suppress drug addiction and the illicit traffic, and is prepared to cooperate with all nations in efforts to solve the problem. It hopes that the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and all opium producing countries will be willing to participate in a conference which is expected to be held after the war for the purpose of drafting a suitable poppy limitation convention.

In the hope of expediting and promoting agreement, the United States Government suggests that the proposed convention should contain provisions:

[Here follow the eighteen provisions as printed in the BULLETIN of July 8, 1945, p. 64.]

It is realized that it will be fruitless to convene a poppy limitation conference unless Iran is willing to participate therein. The Government of the United States is presenting to the Iranian Foreign Office at Tehran a memorandum strongly urging the Iranian Government to limit the production of opium to medicinal and scientific requirements and to cooperate in the work of drafting a poppy limitation convention. That memorandum is along the lines of the copy which is attached hereto.¹ If the Soviet Government could see its way clear to make appropriate representations to the Iranian Government, it is believed that the Iranian Government might give favorable consideration to the proposed program. This suggestion is also being made to the British Government. The Soviet Government, without doubt, has a great interest in the narcotics situation in Iran owing to the presence in Iran of thousands of Soviet troops.

Pending the entering into effect of an international poppy limitation convention, the United States Government suggests that it would be helpful if the Soviet Government would give consideration to the advisability of making an announce-

ment that its policy continues to be to prohibit the production and export of opium for other than strictly medicinal and scientific purposes, and that it will continue to take effective measures to prevent illicit production of opium in its territories and illicit traffic in opium from its territories.

The Government of the United States is now making a similar suggestion to each opium-producing country with which it has friendly relations. It believes that the adoption of such a policy by each of those countries would go far to ensure the success of the prohibition of the use of prepared opium in the Far East and to safeguard all countries against the possibility of an era of increased drug addiction similar to that which followed the first World War. It may also be pointed out that if most of the opium-producing countries were to make sacrifices for the common good by limiting production to an authorized proportion of the total quantity of opium required by the world for medical and scientific purposes, and one country were to continue to produce and use large quantities of opium annually for its own non-medical purposes, such a reservoir would inevitably be drawn upon by illicit traffickers for their supplies.

It would be appreciated if the Soviet Government would inform the Government of the United States at an early date whether it is prepared to make the suggested announcement concerning the limitation of the production of opium to medicinal and scientific requirements. It would also be appreciated if the Soviet Government would communicate to the United States Government its observations in regard to the provisions which the United States Government has suggested be incorporated in the proposed poppy limitation convention.

Translation of a note dated November 2, 1944 from the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, replying to the note of the American Embassy, follows:

PEOPLE'S COMMISSARIAT
FOR FOREIGN AFFAIRS
No. 74.

Acknowledging receipt of note no. 426 from the Embassy of the United States of America the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics has the honor

¹ Not printed.

to state that the Soviet Government values the efforts of the American Government directed toward the uprooting of the illegal traffic in opium and that opium has been produced and used only for medicinal and scientific purposes.

The question of the intended post-war conference and regarding the conditions which might be included in a convention for restricting the cultivation of the poppy in case it was decided to sign such a convention is at present being studied by the competent Soviet authorities.

With reference to the declaration of the Soviet Government concerning the restriction of opium production to the quantity which is dispensable for the satisfaction of medicinal and scientific needs the existence of a state monopoly both in the field of production and in the field of distribution renders the publication of such a declaration superfluous.

Moscow, November 2, 1944.

New Wartime Visa Regulations

[Released to the press July 21]

The Acting Secretary of State has prescribed, with the concurrence of the Attorney General, revised regulations which are published in the *Federal Register* of July 21, 1945 governing the issuance of visas to aliens seeking to enter the United States in time of war.

The revised regulations supersede the previous wartime regulations issued on November 19, 1941 under the proclamation issued by the President on November 14, 1941 in pursuance of the authority contained in the act of Congress approved May 22, 1918, as amended by the Act of June 21, 1941, and are to be applied and enforced by American diplomatic and consular officers abroad in addition to the general peacetime Foreign Service regulations governing the issuance of visas to aliens seeking to enter the United States.

The principal features of the revised wartime regulations include a discontinuance of the "BC" sponsorship form procedure and abolition of the interdepartmental visa committees and the Board of Appeals in visa cases. The Department of State therefore will not accept sponsorship documents and will not initiate action in visa cases hereafter. An alien seeking a permit to enter the United States (visa) must first apply to the Amer-

ican diplomatic or consular office which is authorized to accept applications for visas in the district of the alien's foreign residence. Persons in the United States desirous of presenting evidence in support of visa applications should forward such evidence to the alien concerned for presentation to the consular officer.

American diplomatic and consular officers are authorized hereafter, as they were before the war, to act upon their own initiative on visa applications, and under the responsibility placed upon them by the general immigration laws enacted by Congress. Diplomatic and consular officers are authorized to request advisory opinions from the Secretary of State in certain classes of cases as provided in the revised regulations, and the Department of State will formulate such opinions only upon receipt of a specific request from a diplomatic or consular officer abroad who has found the applicant concerned to be eligible to receive a visa in all respects except for the specific question which may be involved in the case.

The revised regulations contain excluding provisions relating to approximately the same wartime excludable classes, except that a new excluded category of aliens has been added in accordance with the resolution adopted at the Mexico City conference which relates to war criminals. The new excluding provision reads as follows:

"Any alien found to be, or charged with being, a war criminal by the appropriate authorities of the United States or one of its cobelligerents, or an alien who has been guilty of, or who has advocated or acquiesced in activities or conduct contrary to civilization and human decency on behalf of the Axis countries during the present World War."

In addition to the American diplomatic and consular offices in the Western Hemisphere and in the neutral and Allied countries of Europe, Africa, and Asia, which were issuing immigration visas on June 30, 1945, the following American diplomatic and consular offices, some of which are in the areas above mentioned, have been authorized to act upon immigration-visa applications as soon as it may be administratively feasible for them to do so:

Austria	Vienna
Belgium	Antwerp
Bulgaria	Sofia
Czechoslovakia	Praha
Denmark	Copenhagen

Finland	Helsinki
France	Paris, Bordeaux, Marseille
Great Britain	Liverpool
Greece	Athens
Hungary	Budapest
Italy	Naples, Genoa, Palermo
Netherlands	Amsterdam, Rotterdam
Norway	Oslo
Poland	Warsaw
Rumania	Bucharest
Yugoslavia	Belgrade

Visit of Guatemalan Health Official

[Released to the press July 21]

Julio Roberto Herrera, Director General of Public Health of the Republic of Guatemala, is visiting regional and national public-health services in the District of Columbia as the first stage of an itinerary including similar centers in New England, New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland. Dr. Herrera, who studied on a Rockefeller Foundation fellowship at the Johns Hopkins University in 1937, where he received the degree of Master in Public Health from the School of Hygiene, has been in the public-health service of his country for the past 14 years.

In connection with his work at Johns Hopkins, Dr. Herrera spent a summer at the Station for Malarial Research at Tallahassee, Florida. He has done considerable work in parasitology and malariology.

Dr. Herrera is a member of the international Society of Tropical Medicine and of the Geographical and Historical Society of Guatemala. His published works include *Infant Mortality, Malaria, Typhus Exanthematous, Immunity in Malaria, Colonial Hospitals*. He represented the Republic of Guatemala at the Eighth American Scientific Congress at Washington.

THE FOREIGN SERVICE

Consular Offices

The American Consulate at Patras, Greece, was opened to the public on July 12, 1945.

¹ Departmental Order 1330, dated and effective July 14, 1945.

THE DEPARTMENT

Appointment of Officers

John C. Ross as Deputy Director of the Office of Special Political Affairs, effective July 16, 1945.

George Atcheson, Jr., as Special Assistant to the Director of the Office of Far Eastern Affairs, effective July 5, 1945.

Frank A. March as Acting Director and Wilbur C. Irving as Acting Executive Officer of the Office of Departmental Administration, effective July 17, 1945.

William D. Wright as Acting Chief of the Division of Central Services and Orlando A. Simmes as Acting Chief of the Division of Management Planning, both appointments effective July 17, 1945.

Transfer of Functions in Connection With Extradition¹

Purpose. This order consolidates in the Legal Adviser (Le) all responsibility for action, substantive and administrative, on behalf of the Department of State in connection with extradition.

1 *Functions transferred.* The responsibility for all administrative matters in connection with extradition is hereby transferred from the Office of the Foreign Service (OFS) to the Legal Adviser. This includes, but is not limited to:

(a) The preparation of presidential warrants appointing agents to receive surrender of fugitives from the justice of the United States;

(b) The preparation of warrants authorizing the Great Seal of the United States to be attached to the agents' warrants;

(c) The preparation of warrants of surrender of fugitives from the justice of foreign countries;

(d) The preparation of certificates of requisition by foreign countries.

2 *Responsibility for the drafting of necessary correspondence.* Final responsibility for the drafting of the necessary correspondence in connection with extradition shall rest with the Legal Adviser.

3 *Orders amended.* Departmental Order 1314 of April 7, 1945, section 5 (b) (10), and any other order in conflict herewith, is accordingly amended.

JOSEPH C. GREW
Acting Secretary of State

PUBLICATIONS

Charter of the United Nations. Report to the President on the Results of the San Francisco Conference by the Chairman of the United States Delegation, the Secretary of State, June 26, 1945. Conference Series 71. Publication 2349. 266 pp. 45¢.

The United Nations Charter as Declaration and as Constitution. A Letter to the President From Edward R. Stettinius, Jr., Chairman of the United States Delegation to the United Nations Conference at San Francisco, San Francisco, California, June 26, 1945. Conference Series 72. Publication 2355. 14 pp. Free.

Charter of the United Nations Together With the Statute of the International Court of Justice. Signed at the United Nations Conference on International Organization, San Francisco, California, June 26, 1945. Conference Series 74. Publication 2353. 62 pp. Free.

Blueprint for World Civil Aviation. The Chicago International Civil Aviation Conference of 1944 as Viewed by Four Members of the United States Delegation in Recent Magazine Articles. Conference Series 70. Publication 2348. 40 pp. 15¢.

THE CONGRESS

Requesting the President To Use His Good Offices to the End That the United Nations Invite Italy To Be a Signatory to the United Nations Agreement. H. Rept. 881, 79th Cong., to accompany H. J. Res. 204. 2 pp. [Favorable report.]

Increasing the Lending Authority of the Export-Import Bank of Washington. H. Rept. 911, 79th Cong., to accompany H.R. 3771. 8 pp. [Favorable report.]

Authorizing the Committee on Foreign Affairs To Conduct Thorough Studies and Investigations of All Matters Coming Within the Jurisdiction of Such Committee. H. Rept. 920, 79th Cong., to accompany H. Res. 315. 1 p.

Amending the Act Entitled "An Act To Establish a National Archives of the United States Government". H. Rept. 925, 79th Cong., to accompany H.R. 3243. 4 pp. [Favorable report.]

Participation of the United States in the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Minority Views From the Committee on Banking and Currency to accompany H.R. 3314, an Act to provide for the participation of the United

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States in the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. S. Rept. 452, Part 2, 79th Cong. 19 pp.

Official Papers of the Territories. S. Rept. 456, 79th Cong., to accompany H.R. 2522 3 pp. [Favorable report.]

Post-War Imports and Domestic Production of Major Commodities. Letters From the Chairman of the United States Tariff Commission Transmitting a Report of the United States Tariff Commission in Response to Senate Resolution No. 341 (78th Congress). S. Doc. 38, 79th Cong. xiii, 1321 pp.

Public Policy in Postwar Aviation. Report on Public Policy in Postwar Aviation by Halford G. Davis, Former Director of Economic Development, Aeronautical Chamber of Commerce. S. Doc. 56, 79th Cong. vi, 56 pp.

An Act Making appropriations to supply deficiencies in certain appropriations for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1945, and for prior fiscal years, to provide supplemental

appropriations for the fiscal years ending June 30, 1945, and June 30, 1946, to provide appropriations for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1946, and for other purposes. Approved July 5, 1945. H.R. 3579, Public Law 132, 79th Cong. 25 pp. [Department of State, pp. 18-19.]

Elimination of German Resources for War: Hearings Before a Subcommittee of the Committee on Military Affairs, United States Senate, Seventy-ninth Congress, first session, pursuant to S. Res. 107 (78th Congress) and S. Res. 146 (79th Congress) Authorizing a Study of War Mobilization Problems. Part 1. Testimony of Hon. Bernard M. Baruch, before the full Military Affairs Committee, June 22, 1945. iii, 28 pp.

1945 Extension of the Reciprocal Trade Agreements Act: Hearings Before the Committee on Finance, United States Senate, Seventy-ninth Congress, first session, on H.R. 3240, an act to extend the authority of the President under section 350 of the tariff act of 1930, as amended, and for other purposes. [Revised.] May 30, 31, June 1, 4, and 5, 1945. vi, 628 pp. [Department of State, pp. 4-46.]